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THIS REVIEW OF LITERATURE DESCRIBES AND ANALYZES (1) THE NATURE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION, (2) THE COURSE OF DEVELOPMENT THAT BROUGHT CURRICULUM OFFERINGS TO THEIR CURRENT LEVEL, AND (3) THE PARTICIPANTS IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION--THE FACULTY MEMBERS, THE STUDENTS, THE GOVERNMENT, AND THE PRIVATE AGENCIES INTERESTED IN STIMULATING INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION. THE AUTHOR DEFINES THE AREA OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AS "THAT WHICH IS TAUGHT, STUDIED, AND LEARNED IN SUBJECT MATTER THAT REACHES BEYOND THE NATIONAL CULTURE OR IN A LEARNING SITUATION OUTSIDE IT." HE ALSO VOICES DISSATISFACTION WITH THE TERM OF "NON-WESTERN STUDIES," REGARDING IT AS UNSATISFACTORY BECAUSE IT COULD BE VIEWED AS REPRESENTING ONLY A DIVISION BETWEEN "EAST" AND "WEST" RATHER THAN SUGGESTING A WORLD VIEW. THE TWO LEVELS OF COURSES OFFERED IN AMERICAN LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES ARE ANALYZED. THESE ARE DISCUSSED IN THE FOLLOWING CATEGORIES--(1) UPPER DIVISION SPECIALIZED COURSES IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, LANGUAGE AND AREA STUDIES, COMPARATIVE STUDIES, TOPICAL STUDIES, AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES, AND (2) LOWER-DIVISION GENERAL EDUCATION COURSES IN WORLD CIVILIZATION, INTEGRATED AREA STUDIES, AND CONTEMPORARY WORLD ISSUES. DISCUSSIONS ARE GIVEN OF (1) THE SPECIALIZED KIND OF FACULTY NEEDED, (2) FOREIGN STUDENTS ON AMERICAN CAMPUSES, (3) AMERICAN UNDERGRADUATES ABROAD, (4) PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS INTERESTED IN ENCOURAGING INTERNATIONAL STUDY PROGRAMS IN AMERICAN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION, (5) THE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1966 AND OTHER LEGISLATION TO PROVIDE FUNDS, AND (6) THE ROLE OF GOVERNMENT AGENCIES THAT DISTRIBUTE FUNDS. IN ADDITION THE AUTHOR DISCUSSES NEEDED RESEARCH ON THE CURRICULUM, THE FACULTY, AND THE STUDENTS. (AL)

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NEW DIMENSIONS
IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Number 27

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

by Irwin Abrams
David B. Arnold

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FOREWORD

(If and when this manuscript is published for general distribution, the Editor will gladly prepare an appropriate Foreword for the wider audience.)

HIGHLIGHTS

1. The objectives of international education are clearer than its nomenclature. No one is satisfied with the term "Non-Western Studies." It betrays its ethnocentric origin, dividing studies into those about ourselves and those of the rest of the world. It casts the Latin American cultures into an outer group despite their western origins, and it has led to some confusion regarding the Soviet Union, which geographically is part of both West and East and culturally has been strongly influenced by the West for centuries. The very use of the term "Non-West" could lead an unwary educator to the assumption that West plus "Non-West" equals the World View.

2. International education had already made an appearance in the curriculum of many American colleges long before the International Education Act of 1966, and the experience of these institutions may perhaps serve as a guide to future developments throughout the entire undergraduate community.

3. Courses with international content have appeared at two levels in the American liberal arts college: in upper division specialized education and in lower division general education. Throughout both upper and lower division instruction new courses have been developed with complete international content (the unitary approach), and existing courses have been expanded with international material (the infused approach).

4. An internationalized college curriculum quite clearly requires faculty with particular dedication to and competence in education for world affairs. This faculty will ideally have received certain specialized training, have had certain overseas experience relevant to an understanding of the objectives and processes of international education, and be committed to the transmission of this knowledge and experience to American undergraduates. Such faculty are, unfortunately, still quite rare.

5. Until the last 25 years the number of students who left their homelands in search of learning abroad was very small. After the First World War there were only an estimated 50,000, approximately one fifth of them in the United States. It was after the Second World War that the boom began. Today UNESCO reports that the total is approaching one third of a million, and the Institute of International Education counted 91,000 of them in the United States in 1965.

6. Both public and private support for programs of international undergraduate education have increased markedly in recent years. With intensified federal initiatives in international education, much of the attention of the private foundations is now turning to the problems of developing universities overseas, where viable approaches to innovation are being sought.

I. THE OBJECTIVES OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

On October 29, 1966, President Johnson, while visiting Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok, Thailand, signed the International Education Act, "to provide for the strengthening of American educational resources for international studies and research." His gesture was symbolic and the Act itself was unprecedented, declaring international education to be in the national interest and deserving of Federal financial support. It provides not only for assistance to universities for the establishment of graduate centers for research and the training of specialists, but also provides for assistance to institutions of higher education in strengthening and improving "undergraduate instruction in international studies." What is most revolutionary about this epoch-making International Education Act is the hoped-for impact upon undergraduate education, which amounts to nothing less than including a world perspective with every college diploma.

It is with the international education of undergraduates that this paper is chiefly concerned. We recognize that the term has many and broader meanings, but we mean to concern ourselves with that which is taught, studied, and learned either in subject matter that reaches beyond the national culture or in a learning situation outside it.

The goals of higher education in this country have always contained a strong utilitarian element. Private colleges were preparing an elite to preach and teach long before land-grant institutions began to educate greater numbers of students for responsible citizenship. But the college education that might have well served the citizenry of the relatively isolated America of the nineteenth century became increasingly outmoded as the United States assumed a dominant role, politically, economically, and culturally, in the fast-changing world of the last 50 years. Between the wars, courses in international relations made their appearance here and there in college catalogs, but it was American involvement in World War II and in the problems of its aftermath that led to the Great Awakening to the worlds beyond the seas.

The growing concern among educators for inclusion of world affairs in the curriculum can be traced in reports of such organizations as the Council on Foreign Relations,[1] the Brookings Institution,[2] and especially the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, which, in cooperation with the American Council of Education, published the important eight-volume series, "Studies in Universities and World Affairs."[3] Some hard evidence as to the sorry state of international education at the undergraduate level was provided by Percy Bidwell's study commissioned by the Carnegie Foundation in 1958 and published in 1962, Undergraduate Education in Foreign Affairs. On the basis of interviews with many professors and administrators, questionnaires distributed to 226 institutions, and a foreign affairs test administered to 1,900 college seniors at 175 colleges across the country, he concluded:

> Few seniors, when they get their bachelor's degree, display much more knowledge of foreign countries or of the major issues of U. S. foreign policy than they did when they were freshmen; they may even show less interest in these matters. They are not well informed, sensitive, or responsive with respect to events and conditions outside the United States.[4]

What was needed was clearly enunciated in the report made in 1960 by the distinguished Committee on the University and World Affairs, whose members included Dean Rusk, Senator Fulbright, John Gardner, and Arthur Flemming. They were concerned with many aspects of the new world role of the universities. On undergraduate education they declared: "A first-class liberal education in the second half of the twentieth century should unquestionably include an effective international component . . . . During their undergraduate years, all students should get at least an introductory acquaintance with some culture other than their own."[5]

This report was followed by the establishment of a committee concerned with the College and World Affairs. Chaired by John Nason, president of Carleton College, and ably served by George Beckmann of the Ford Foundation and University of Kansas as its study director, this committee's incisive report must represent the starting point of any discussion of the American college and international education.

The purpose of the report is clearly stated in the opening lines: "This report is a plea to educate young men and women in such ways as to enable them to respond with sensitivity and intelligence to a world which is characterized by a plurality of cultures and by pervasive and tumultuous change." What is called for is nothing short of a complete "overhaul" of liberal education: "The great humanistic philosophy in liberal learning must be translated into twentieth-century terms." Humane learning has always liberated the mind: "It removes the blinders of parochialism and leads the emancipated person toward an affinity for all that is human." Today this means raising our students' horizons beyond the Western tradition. To see a foreign culture clearly and to appreciate its values means to understand better one's own culture. "This must be regarded as an essential characteristic of the liberally educated student."

Liberal education, then, to retain its traditional values, must take the changing world and its many cultures into account, must nourish a world view. "The contemporary world requires of its educated citizens a breadth of outlook and a degree of sensitivity to other cultures unlike any required in the previous history of mankind. This requirement coincides with the universality of viewpoint characteristic of the liberally educated individual."

To the authors of the report, "the fulfilled individual and the intelligent citizen"[6] are one, a view not without a trace of parochialism, perhaps, but one which allows them to concentrate upon the intellectual rather than the practical values of a liberal education. This assumption also helps the committee avoid the tendency, evident in many places, to identify preparation for citizenship with the addition of courses on world problems to the curriculum. In an article full of good sense, "Education for a World Community," Professor DeBary has warned of this misconception. He cites Mark Van Doren on the education of the student: "His job is not to understand whatever world may flash by at the moment; it is to get himself ready for any human world at all." DeBary goes on to comment that many advocates of the world outlook are too contemporary-minded: "They make little allowance for the need to have deep roots in the past if one is to cope with the sudden bewildering complexities of the present."[7]

The Report of the Committee on the College and World Affairs makes specific recommendations for strengthening faculty and teaching resources and developing the educational program. Similar recommendations are made in an important report issued by the Commission on International Understanding of the Association of American Colleges, entitled Non-Western Studies in the Liberal Arts College. Of most value in this volume are the descriptions of 18 undergraduate programs, illustrating the great variety of ways in which college curricula have been given a new world outlook.[8]

The objectives of international education are clearer than its nomenclature. No one is satisfied with the term "Non-Western studies." It betrays its ethnocentric origin, dividing studies into those about ourselves and those about the rest of the world. It casts the Latin American cultures into the outer darkness despite their Western origins, and it has led to some confusion as regards the Soviet Union, which geographically is part of both West and East and culturally has been strongly influenced by the West for centuries. Moreover, the very use of the term "Non-West" could lead an unwary educator to the assumption that West plus "Non-West" equals the World View.

II. INTERNATIONALIZING THE CURRICULUM

International education had already made an appearance in the curriculum of many American colleges long before the International Education Act of 1966, and the experience of these institutions may perhaps serve as a guide to future developments throughout the entire undergraduate community. It is our concern here to examine this experience: to consider the history of international education in the liberal arts curriculum, to discern possible trends, and to suggest areas that would appear to require further research and experimentation.

Courses with international content have appeared at two levels in the American liberal arts college: in upper-division specialized education and in lower-division general education. In upper-division instruction, there have been five categories of courses or course groupings: international relations, language and area studies, comparative studies, topical studies, and international studies. In lower-division instruction there have been three categories: world civilization, integrated area, and contemporary world issues. Throughout both upper- and lower-division instruction new courses have been developed with complete international content (the unitary approach), and existing courses have been expanded to include international material (the infused approach).

Upper Division

International relations is the study of the interactions of nation-states in world affairs, based on considerations of how overseas objectives are achieved by states and the conditions for probable success or failure of such activities. It is concerned not only with contemporary relations between states, but also with historical antecedents and possible future developments. The study of international relations is based on the contributions of several disciplines: political science, history, psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and geography.

The study of international relations has developed in this country nearly concomitant with American interest in and concern with foreign affairs. Early courses in the field appeared at the turn of the century; several departments of international relations were created shortly after World War I; and professional schools for the preparation of students for careers in foreign affairs began to appear in the 1930's.

Although there have been continuing attempts by proponents of international relations to develop the field as a distinct academic discipline, it has thus far remained primarily a field within the discipline of political science. With political science concerned with states and government, the focus of international relations upon the interaction of states has seemed to political scientists, at least, to be an extension of their own discipline. From the early beginnings of the field, they have seen international politics as the core, if not the basic philosophy, of the study of international relations.

While the study of international relations has been a concern of graduate education primarily, a growing number of programs in international relations have appeared at the undergraduate level within the past 20 years.[9] In both organization and content these programs have reflected the experiences of the graduate schools. There have been three discernibly different institutional approaches to the study of international relations: courses and degrees offered within traditional departments; courses offered within the traditional departments, but with a degree program in international relations administered by an interdepartmental committee; and both courses and degrees offered in a separate department, institute, or school of international relations. The approach chosen has usually reflected questions of institutional politics more than presumed relative instructional benefits.

Language and area study is the systematic investigation of the political, economic, social and cultural attributes of a world geographic region, based on the assumption that these attributes are discernibly different from one geographic region to another.[10]

The region considered may be as extensive as an entire continent, as in African Studies or Latin American Studies. It may be restricted to a subcontinent, as in Middle Eastern Studies or Southeast Asian Studies. It may span two continents, as in Atlantic Community Studies, or only a small grouping of nation-states, as in Balkan Studies.

Area study in theory requires the equal contribution of the techniques of several disciplines, bound together for purposes of research and instruction, in an area program. In practice, however, the social science disciplines have received more emphasis than others.

The prime goals of area study have been the collection of significant data on the regions of the world important to an understanding of world affairs and the development of an instructional technique for the transmission of this information to students of world affairs.

Although several area studies programs had developed in American universities during the 1930's, the first great impetus toward an area approach came during World War II. American military needs created a demand for specialized knowledge of certain world areas which had hitherto been remote from American interests and concerns. Washington officials required political, economic, social, and cultural information about these areas for policy formulation; field personnel needed guidance on modes of operation appropriate to their areas of assignment.

These requirements brought to Washington scholars knowledgeable about these world areas and created pressures on the academic community to train a significantly greater number of area specialists. Although the immediate needs of the government for area information subsided during the early postwar years, scholars returning from their Washington assignments brought a sharply developed enthusiasm for area study to their respective campuses. During the late 1940's and early 1950's, area study centers began to expand throughout the American academic community, financed largely by the major philanthropic foundations.

Soviet space successes in the late 1950's jolted the United States government into a concern with education for world affairs even greater than that generated by World War II intelligence requirements. The National Defense Act of 1958 provided massive Federal support for instruction and research on those world areas considered vital to the security of the United States, with special emphasis placed on foreign language and particularly critical language acquisition.[11]

Until the passage of the National Defense Education Act, the area approach had been found mainly at the graduate level of American universities. However, the act encouraged the adoption of this approach at the undergraduate level as well, to the extent that by 1966, 31 of the 98 NDEA-supported language and area centers were primarily undergraduate in focus.

From the beginning, the place of area study programs in the curriculum has remained a source of controversy. Early enthusiasts of the area approach predicted that the techniques of the various disciplines, when applied to area research and instruction, would merge to produce an interdisciplinary approach significantly different from the techniques of any of the contributing disciplines. With this expectation came the supposition that area study had the potentialities of a new discipline warranting the establishment of new departments, new concentrations, and new degrees.

These expectations have remained largely unfulfilled. Area study is indeed multidisciplinary, with contributions offered by a variety of separate disciplines. However, there are as yet no indications that disciplinary cooperation has produced a perspective so significantly different as to warrant the recognition of a new world affairs discipline. Several universities have instituted concentrations in area studies at the Master's level, but these programs are largely administered by a committee representing the several departments contributing to instruction in the particular area.

Undergraduate programs in area studies have developed in much the same way as those at the graduate level. Concentrations in area studies are rare, as are degrees. However, area studies has developed as a minor field of concentration in conjunction with a major in one of the established disciplines. These programs are usually administered by a committee representing the departments involved, but the area courses are offered within existing departments. Instructors contributing to these courses customarily hold their appointments in traditional departments.

As area instruction and research have developed throughout the American academic community, the basic assumption that the political, economic, social, and cultural attributes of all world geographic regions are strikingly different from all other regions has come to appear less and less valid. As more information is gathered on each of the areas, as the phenomena of one are compared with those of another, and as generalizations are thereby formed, scholars have come to note with increasing frequency the common rather than disparate elements of the several areas.

Comparative study, which has developed as an extension of area study, is based on a growing discovery that area boundaries are not as distinct as had been supposed and that an understanding of political, economic, social, and cultural elements common to world areas is important to an understanding of the most basic forces in world affairs.

Comparative study does not accept the proposition that every phenomenon of human society results from a combination of ideas and events distinctly peculiar to that society. Rather, it suggests that though societies may develop different models of world outlook, different patterns of behavior, and different operational structures, these models, patterns, and structures are attempts to meet human needs common to all societies. Following one of the basic tenets of anthropology, comparative study holds that the external manifestations of societies may be different, but the internal drives are not.

Comparative study searches for those developments in human affairs which are common to all civilizations and attempts to identify the most basic elements of human experience. However, the investigation of disparate elements among world areas proves to be of nearly equal importance to the investigation of elements common to all areas, for the differences make similarities all the more striking.

Comparative study of classical civilizations appears to have been a basic element of liberal learning from the very beginnings of Western academic development. The comparison of contemporary societies is a relatively recent development, dating perhaps to the early 1950's. As basic data on each of the world areas became available, the distinctions of each area proved to be not quite as sharp as had been anticipated. Political scientists discovered that all political systems appeared to share certain common elements; linguists discovered that all language systems shared certain basic structures. The early comparative analyses were made between Western systems; later developments occurred in the analysis of features common to both Western and non-Western systems, and features common to non-Western systems alone.

Developments in comparative study have suggested that, as in area study, the cooperation of several disciplines is required for an understanding of the totality of interplay between world societies. Several social science and humanities disciplines have instituted courses serving as a vehicle for the comparison of world governments, world economic structures, world social systems, and world cultures. Although instructors from several disciplines contribute to these courses, comparative study courses, as area study courses, are customarily taught only within traditional departments.

As yet there have been no moves toward developing a major, a coordinate major, or even a supplementary minor in comparative studies. Even more than area study, the comparative approach has been viewed as a vehicle to be used by all disciplines, rather than an academic unit in itself. However, comparative study may prove to be far more significant than area study to the liberal arts college. The area approach, if carried to its logical extreme, would demand a degree of specificity that customarily has not been considered appropriate within liberal education. Where area study serves to localize investigation, comparative study serves to integrate and unify data. Where area study fosters the process of specialization considered necessary to graduate study, comparative study fosters the process of generalization considered more appropriate to liberal learning.[12]

Topical study is the application of the research and instruction techniques of the social science disciplines primarily, and other disciplines secondarily, to the understanding of and search for problems common to all contemporary societies. Examples might be race relations, political change, economic development, urbanization, and effects of war. Topical study is based on the fundamental assumption that the problems of technological society are common to all world regions irrespective of differences in historical experience, or political, economic, or social structure. Thus, according to the topical approach to world affairs, the problems of urbanization in Latin America have much in common with urbanization problems in Africa; the problems of economic development in the Middle East have much in common with those of Asia.[13]

Topical study, as area and comparative study, utilizes the contributions of many disciplines. However, as opposed to area and comparative study, the emphasis is on the application of the theory of each discipline to operational needs. Applied anthropology is more relevant to topical study than anthropological theory; applied political science is more relevant than political theory. Contributions that any discipline may make to an understanding of the change process and techniques of effecting change are particularly relevant. Topical study is oriented toward specific problems; area and comparative study are oriented toward general knowledge.

With the now extensive collection of basic data on each of the world areas, and with the increasing preoccupation of the United States government and private American philanthropic agencies with the actual problems of the developing regions of the world, many scholars have turned their attention to the application of area and comparative data to the solution of these problems. Specific programs of research and instruction have appeared dealing with the phenomena of an evolving technological society.

Funding for topical studies has come primarily from the Agency for International Development and the Peace Corps, both intensely concerned with change in the developing areas of the world. Programs in topical studies often train future AID and Peace Corps personnel and draw upon the expertise of those who have recently returned from overseas service.

Although formal programs in topical studies have been developed at the graduate level in recent years, they have yet to appear at the undergraduate level. Individual courses and seminars in problems of economic or political development, in urban problems or minority problems, are now offered in several American colleges. Other colleges have introduced involvement in public issues into the undergraduate educational experience through off-campus work in the problem areas of both American and overseas societies. However, there are no indications yet of moves to develop topical studies as a possible major, coordinate major, or minor field of concentration.

Future developments in topical study at the undergraduate level will be very much conditioned by the perceptions of college trustees, administrators, faculty, and students of the desirable influence of contemporary needs of society on the college curriculum. The traditional concept of liberal education has produced patterns of education very much removed from the more immediate demands of society. Yet, the educational influence of the Peace Corps, the off-campus projects of student activists, and the growing involvement of American faculty of all levels in public affairs may make a significant impact on traditional college attitudes toward the functions and goals of liberal learning.

International studies is an attempt to integrate the area, comparative, and topical approaches in a unified program of research and instruction in the backgrounds, constituent elements, and patterns of contemporary world affairs. It is based on the assumption that no one approach, whether it be international relations, area, comparative, or topical, is in itself sufficient to produce an understanding of world affairs. Rather, it presumes that the contributions of all four approaches are necessary: that each approach builds on the data of the other three and that only in integrating the data and techniques furnished by all four approaches can world affairs be understood in their entirety.

International studies is an attempt to coordinate, integrate, and provide direction for all aspects of international education on a college or university campus. Unlike the study of international relations or area, comparative, and topical studies, international studies offers neither new techniques of analysis nor new data on world affairs. Programs in international studies have developed, as might be expected, at those academic institutions where the study of international relations or area, comparative, and topical studies have already proved of value.

International studies is the most recent development in international education, appearing only within the current decade, and is found at both graduate and undergraduate levels. There have not been, nor does it seem probable that there would ever be, new courses with an international studies content. However, there does appear to be a trend toward placing the designation "international studies" on all courses concerned with world affairs. The designation does not suggest that these courses are using techniques other than those developed through the other approaches. Rather the designation implies that these courses are related one to the other through a sharing of common goals of international education. Similarly, some colleges and universities have adopted the title of director or dean of international studies for the administrator responsible for the coordination of all institutional programs in international education. Several colleges have also formulated a major, coordinate major, or minor in international studies, administered by a committee representative of all departments offering courses with international content.

The International Education Act of 1966 will probably provide a major impetus for the concept of international studies, as the National Defense Education Act provided for the concept of language and area studies. However, because of the basic assumptions of international studies, it would seem quite likely that this approach will not supplant any of the earlier approaches toward an understanding of world affairs. On the contrary, international studies will probably encourage the continued development of the other four approaches.

Lower Division

In the period immediately preceding and following World War II, American educators came to recognize certain presumed excesses in the elective system, whereby students could select courses as they pleased, governed only by requirements of distribution between the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences, and by major field requirements.

General education was conceived as an answer to this problem. Programs in general education were developed to provide a common core of knowledge to students no matter what their eventual specialization might be. This common core was perceived as contributing to two objectives of undergraduate education: the first, to indicate the persistent values of human existence through both time and space; the second, to foster abilities of ordering information, of recognizing relevant issues, and of conceptualizing and generalizing from these issues.

General education, as conceived in the 1930's, developed in the 1940's, and further refined in the 1950's, is concerned with all aspects of society. Therefore, the study of foreign cultures has played an important role in the development of a general education curriculum. This study has taken three main forms: courses in contemporary world issues, world civilization courses, and integrated area courses.[14]

Contemporary world issues courses antedate formal programs in general education by several decades. These courses, focusing on the most pressing problems of contemporary world society, had their origins in those offerings in international relations early in the century that were concerned more with description of current events than the formulation of theories of interaction between nation-states.

In their present form, courses in contemporary world issues serve as a lower-division introductory version of upper-division courses employing the topical approach. Utilizing the investigative techniques of several disciplines, these courses attempt to analyze the causes and possible solutions for the major crises facing world society. Although they are taught by a team of instructors from many disciplines, the nature of the contemporary world usually dictates a preponderant role for the political scientist. Therefore, many colleges offer courses in contemporary world issues through a political science department rather than an interdepartmental committee.

World civilization courses also antedate the creation of formal programs in general education, appearing at some institutions prior to World War II. These courses focus on one or several of the "great" world civilizations, such as China or India, as worthy of study in themselves, in comparison with other world civilizations, or in comparison with Western civilization. They are customarily taught by a team of instructors from several disciplines and often offer the student a world civilization text prepared through the combined efforts of these several disciplines. The course is also usually offered outside traditional departmental structures, through an interdepartmental committee concerned with general education.

Although the world civilization course was developed long before the formulation of comparative studies, it now serves in some cases not only as a presentation in general education but also as a lower-division introduction to more specialized upper-division courses utilizing the comparative approach.

The integrated area course is the most recent addition to the international component of general education, appearing only after World War II and receiving its impetus from area study developments at the graduate and upper-division college levels of American higher education. The integrated area course presents the student with the significant features of all aspects of human society in a particular world region. Whereas the scope of the world civilization course is chosen by considerations of cultural boundaries, the scope of the integrated area course is determined by geographical boundaries.

The integrated area course, as the world civilization course, is usually taught by a team of instructors from several disciplines and is administered outside of any traditional department. It also serves as either a course in general education or a lower-division introduction to further specialized area study.

Needed Research on the Curriculum

The most pressing area of concern in the undergraduate curriculum for international education is the question of what are the most productive instructional strategies for developing in the student an appreciation for both the processes and goals of foreign cultures and their relevance to his own life aspirations. In making decisions on alternate curricular structures in undergraduate international education, educators need research along the following lines:

1. What constitutes a foreign culture? Must the student study the processes and goals of overseas cultures, or would the study of any American subculture foreign to his own experience, such as that of Watts or Appalachia, be equally productive?

2. Unitary or diffused? Which are the more productive, courses with complete international content or courses with only partial international content?

3. Lower division or upper division. Does international education at the general education level produce more significant attitude transformations than international education at the specialized level?

4. Role of language. Is the study of language necessary to or supportive of an understanding of a foreign culture? If so, to what degree of proficiency?

5. Historical or contemporary. Is the study of a foreign culture in the past as productive as the study of a foreign culture in the present?

6. General education approach. Which of the different general education approaches to the study of foreign affairs--the world civilization, contemporary world issues, or integrated area courses--is more productive for American undergraduates?

7. Specialized approach. Which of the different specialized approaches to the study of foreign affairs--international relations, area study, comparative study, topical study, or integrated international study--is more productive?

8. Testing procedures. How can the results of any of the above curricular approaches be tested?[15]

III. THE INTERNATIONALIZED FACULTY

An internationalized college curriculum quite clearly requires faculty with particular dedication to and competence in education for world affairs. This faculty will ideally have received certain specialized training, have had certain overseas experience relevant to an understanding of the objectives and processes of international education, and be committed to the transmission of this knowledge and experience to American undergraduates. How common are internationalized faculty members at American colleges?

Such faculty members are, unfortunately, still quite rare. First, the main thrust of specialized training in international education has come only within the past decade. Graduate programs which supplement advanced training in such fields as political science, economics, history, sociology, anthropology, geography, linguistics, literature, or philosophy with equally rigorous training in international relations, language and area study, comparative study, or topical study, or integrated international studies, require years of learning. When overseas experience in research, teaching, or other academically relevant activity is added to these years of graduate study, it becomes clear why there are relatively few faculty available for positions in international education at any academic level.

Second, those specialists in international education who are available for employment are often as eagerly sought by government agencies, private and international organizations, and business firms with overseas operations as by academic institutions. Many international education specialists are attracted to nonacademic careers by their more immediate relevance to contemporary world affairs; others by higher wages, expanded fringe benefits, and better employment conditions. However, some international education specialists have been able to solve this conflict by combining teaching and research with consulting or more long-term assignments with nonacademic organizations.

Third, those specialists in international education who choose academic careers are more often attracted to university than to college positions. Universities offer greater opportunities for research and less stringent requirements for teaching. Those who do teach have comparatively fewer courses to meet, are usually responsible only for courses within their own fields of interest, and are given student assistants to lighten their load. Library facilities are stronger at universities. Finally, universities are generally more willing to grant faculty leave for research, consulting, or overseas assignments in international education.[16] Indeed, many American universities are engaged in government or foundation-sponsored educational development assistance which allows and even encourages faculty members to serve overseas without taking leave from their home institution.[17]

American colleges have responded to the lack of available international specialists in two ways: either by attempting to meet the career objectives of those specialists available for employment; or by more aptly using the faculty expertise, existing or potential, that they may already have.

The colleges have thus far had only limited success in meeting the employment objectives of available international education specialists. Few colleges have either the facilities or the resources to encourage faculty research at the expense of teaching. Nor, with the historical function of the college that of teaching, would it appear that they would wish to promote such a development. Some colleges have created research centers in area, comparative, topical, or international studies modeled after advanced research centers at universities, but these centers are seen as supplementing, rather than replacing, teaching responsibilities. Furthermore, the goals of liberal education, as presently defined, would appear to require faculty adept at and willing to teach both introductory as well as specialized courses with international content. Therefore, few colleges are able to offer prospective faculty members only those courses in advanced fields of competence.

Many colleges have been successful in locating outside funds or diverting internal funds to build substantial library holdings in world affairs. However, few colleges can afford to offer their faculty extended or periodic leave for research, teaching, or operational assignments in international education, and even fewer American colleges are involved in overseas educational development projects to which they could assign their faculty for overseas experience. Many undergraduate institutions maintain or contribute to overseas study centers to which home campus faculty are assigned on an occasional basis; others have accepted Peace Corps training contracts, which may contain overseas training components. These projects do not, however, offer the kinds of opportunities for research and experience in educational development that most specialists in international education consider essential to their career patterns.[18]

American colleges have been somewhat more successful in better utilizing the faculty resources already available. This success has been achieved in two ways: by offering opportunities for advanced training in international education to those faculty members who are committed to undergraduate education but have yet no particular competence in education for world affairs; and by sharing with neighboring institutions those few available faculty members who have such expertise.

The development of international competence in faculty already committed to undergraduate education has taken the form of on-campus faculty seminars, which use the resources of inside or outside specialists in international education, and graduate study at a university with strength in world affairs education. Faculty seminars usually coincide with normal teaching responsibilities, although some colleges grant a reduction in teaching load for seminar participation. Further graduate study or overseas experience involves a leave of absence from the home institution, with continuing employment both guaranteed and usually required, at least for a limited period of time, upon the faculty member's return. Leave for attendance at summer institutes or for a semester of research or study is fairly common; leaves of an academic year or longer, though probably more effective, are less common. In most cases, faculty members are not completely free to choose their own area of proposed further study. Rather, the decision is usually made according to the projected needs of the institution. If there has been a collegewide decision to develop a program in African studies, a faculty member will find it difficult to justify a proposed period of study in Asian affairs.[19]

There has been a marked increase, within the past five years in particular, in the creation of interinstitutional arrangements for sharing faculty with world affairs expertise. The more common arrangement has involved a group of colleges in the same geographical region; a less common arrangement has involved an affiliation between a university and several neighboring colleges. In either case, expertise is shared by rotating a faculty member between different institutions during successive semesters; dividing a faculty member's time between two or more institutions during the same semester; or by moving students to a centrally located campus for a single course or a complete semester. These affiliations usually also involve a pooling of library resources, either through interlibrary loan or through opening all libraries to students or faculty from every institution involved. In some cases, cooperative arrangements have also included joint research projects among faculty of several institutions.[20]

Needed Research on the Faculty

Additional research on the internationalized faculty is needed in the following areas:

1. Career choices of specialists in international education. What are the employment patterns of Ph.D.'s with competence and experience in international education? What are the career objectives that lead these specialists to academic careers, and particularly, to careers in college teaching? What attractions will American colleges need to develop or be able to develop in order to recruit and retain these specialists? College administrators have made certain assumptions about the comparative unwillingness of international education specialists to consider careers in undergraduate teaching, yet no

research has been conducted into the validity of these assumptions.[21]

2. Relevance of overseas experience to college teaching effectiveness in international education. How necessary or relevant is overseas experience for the college faculty member offering international education courses? What kind of overseas experience (teaching, research, or operations) is most productive? How often should the faculty member return overseas, and for what period of time?

3. Role of universities in training new college faculty. What responsibilities might universities with particular competence in international education take for the training of future college faculty? In particular, might they not experiment with assigning advanced graduate students to a year of college teaching as part of their graduate training?[22]

4. Role of universities in retraining existing college faculty. What new approaches might be feasible for university contributions to the retraining of faculty at the college level? In particular, might those universities with experience in educational development overseas be able to apply their experience to colleges in this country?[23]

IV. THE INTERNATIONAL STUDENT

The Goals of Foreign Study

Until the last 25 years the number of students who left their homelands in search of learning abroad was very small. After World War I there were only an estimated 50,000, approximately one-fifth of them in the United States. It was after World War II that the boom began. Today UNESCO reports that the total is approaching one-third of a million, and the Institute of International Education counted 91,000 of them studying in the United States in 1965. They tend to come for graduate study and to cluster at less than 50 universities, but there were 1,700 American campuses that reported the presence of one or more students from a total of 158 countries and territories. A parallel movement took more than 18,000 American students abroad during the academic year 1965-66, an estimated 7,500 of them undergraduates participating in programs organized by American institutions.[24] The modern student migration differs from that of other times not only in numbers but in the nature of its support. While the wandering scholars of other ages traveled mainly on their own resources, many of today's students travel on other people's money in what has been called "Directed Educational Exchange." This is not to say that the motives of the students today are any different than those of their predecessors: love of learning shares place with love of adventure, love of gain, and even love of country. But the major impulse has been, as always, the advancement, personally or professionally, that foreign study can provide. The goals of the students themselves must be distinguished from those of the governments, the institutions, and the agencies that support them--which have been formulated in terms of national interest or international understanding.

Students may seek specialized learning and general education abroad. Most of the international students today travel in pursuit of the former at the graduate level. For some undergraduates the acquisition of a certain language and special knowledge of a society may represent a major step toward a career involving such competence, but for the great majority of undergraduates foreign study represents not specialized training but general education. An experience of foreign study can give the undergraduate: (1) knowledge and understanding of his host culture and the world in general; (2) a more objective understanding of his own culture; and (3) a more objective understanding of himself and his values and an advance in maturity and independence. These outcomes represent the special contribution of cross-cultural experience to the liberal education of the undergraduate. They are more likely to be produced through a well-designed foreign study program than through the education provided on most campuses.

The Foreign Student on the American Campus

To the United States, as to the other leading host countries, the thousands of students from other countries have brought with them a multitude of problems: difficulties of adjustment, linguistic deficiencies, special academic needs, and many more. American education, with its tradition of welfare planning for its students, invented the profession of the foreign student adviser to deal with some of these problems, and by 1961 over 1,000 institutions had appointed such an officer.[25] But advising on campus, however expert, can only meet one part of a problem that begins in the very process of application by the would-be student overseas and continues after his return home. The college campus often gives the foreign student a better experience of America than the large university, where enclaves of students from overseas can remain almost a subculture of their own and where individual academic departments often follow different policies of admitting them.

Recently American educators have begun to give more serious attention to the "foreign student problem." This was the subject of one of the first reports to be issued by the Education and World Affairs Committee--*The Foreign Student: Whom Shall We Welcome?*--which was followed by a special study, *The Overseas Selection of Foreign Students.*[26]

The problems identified in these reports may be classified chronologically: (1) those that must be dealt with before the foreign student leaves home; (2) the problems of his sojourn; and (3) the problems of returning to his own society.

1. How can a better job be done of selecting those students who will benefit most and directing them to those institutions best equipped to provide what is needed? The EWA Committee found that only one of every four foreign students in the United States had received any counseling when he applied or was given a test before he was accepted. The committee's major recommendation was for the establishment of a quasi-public agency, to be supported by both government and private funds, that would set up counseling, evaluating, and testing centers overseas, beginning with a pilot project in India. The agency would be governed by a board in which the academic community was strongly represented, and its activities would not encroach upon the autonomy of institutions in admitting applicants. The agency would encourage participation in the selection process of local groups overseas.

Policies of selection involve the basic question of the level of training at which foreign students should be admitted. As facilities for college education increase in the developing areas, there is an evident trend toward a greater proportion of graduate students. Should admission policies discourage the undergraduate? A prior question is the extent to which American universities and colleges should be subsidizing foreign nationals in their study in the United States. What proportion of American educational resources is better invested in assisting the development of training centers abroad, rather than in bringing students to the United States? And for which kind of studies should the student stay at home or come here?

2. How can the foreign student's sojourn be so arranged as to lead to outcomes most consistent with the best purposes of bringing him to the United States? Important gains have been made in the area of advising and in programs of orientation and English-language instruction. Problems of academic standards have continued to plague administrators. There has been a curious double standard in the treatment in the United States of foreign students, who have been expected to conform completely to American academic requirements, and in the special arrangements American educators have been too quick to fashion for their own students in foreign universities. The experience of American study programs overseas would seem to point to the advisability of considering more special non-degree programs for foreigners in the United States, tailored to their own needs.

Highly relevant to the question of the values of the sojourn period is the potential contribution the visitors can make to the education of American students, a subject that is finally beginning to receive some attention.

3. What can be done to help the student to make the most of his experience after his studies are completed? This is in many ways the most difficult of the three problem areas, and it is the one about which our information is most incomplete. Part of the answer, of course, in any given case is in the way the first two questions have been dealt with. A great part of the answer lies in conditions in the student's homeland and his society's willingness to make use of his training. Studies made of students who have returned to India and Japan have emphasized this point. And what about the student who decides not to return? Of the 91,000 foreign students in this country, the Institute of International Education has identified nearly 11,000 as immigrants. This so-called brain drain has recently been coming in for much attention. An amendment to the International Education Act calls for an extensive study of this problem, and the United States Advisory Committee on International and Cultural Affairs is preparing a report on its economic implications. To what extent is this an expression of cultural alienation, to what extent does it represent the same movement from lower to higher centers of civilization, to areas of greater economic opportunity that has characterized the whole history of man? There are some perplexing dilemmas. How do we reconcile our commitment to a free world of scholarship, where careers are open to all and where there are no border restrictions, with our concern that the training we give gets back to where it is most needed?

The American Undergraduate Abroad

While there have been fewer undergraduates in proportion to graduates among foreign students in America in the last few years, among American students abroad the proportion of undergraduates has been rising. This has been due to the phenomenal rise of programs of study abroad conducted by American colleges and universities for their students. In the academic year 1965-66 there were more than 200 such programs, which represented an increase of 100 percent in three years. Most of the institutions that do not organize their own programs accept the credit their students earn in programs administered by other institutions. Developing from a Junior-Year-Abroad model, first used in Paris, programs have spread around the world in a variety of formats, presenting a striking demonstration of American pluralism. Stanford has five self-contained campuses in Europe, providing half of its students with the opportunity to study abroad before receiving the A.B. degree. The University of California operates 10 overseas study centers at universities on three continents and talks about 36 centers on six continents enrolling 2,000 students by 1975. The State University of New York has announced a broad program that could send 4,500 students overseas in the near future.

In France, which is still the most popular location for study, there were more than 40 programs in 1966, while in Germany there were 25. Programs have spread from the capitals to the provinces, from universities to other educational institutions, from Western Europe to Latin America, the Middle East, India, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Japan, and Africa. Summer study programs have moved into the Soviet Union, Yugoslavia, and elsewhere in Eastern Europe.[27]

Not only are programs widespread, they come in all varieties. A survey of the American programs in Germany in 1965-66 well illustrates this diversity.[28] Two of these were conducted for graduate students, an interesting fact in itself, since the great majority of American graduates overseas study on their own as regularly enrolled students of the universities, just as students from other countries do in the United States. The 26 undergraduate programs were designed mainly for students in their third year of college, but students at other levels also participated. The durations of study varied from an academic quarter, or semester, to a full academic year or more. Some of the American institutions had their students in more than one type of academic arrangement and even in more than one place. The 25 programs on which data were assembled were conducted by 21 American institutions. Some 165 others were represented by the participation of their students in programs not restricted to students of the administering institutions. Typical admission requirements were a grade average of "B," two years of college German, personal maturity, and medical approval. After selection, the students participated in orientation programs of various types conducted on home campuses, on shipboard, and in Germany itself before the academic year began.

To 15 percent of the American participants, the beginning of the German academic year was a matter of no concern--their programs were conducted outside the German university. The other 85 percent attended university lectures, but in varying relationships to the university. Some were enrolled as regular students, others were listed as auditors. Some supplemented the university lectures with tutorial sessions, others heard the university lectures only to supplement an academic program arranged especially for them. All the programs arranged for examinations, either in Germany or at home, or translated into American terms the results of certain German examinations.

The students lived with German families (44 percent), in Studentenheime or their own dormitories (49 percent), or roomed in boarding houses. Arrangements varied for meals, field trips and other extramural activities, for regulations governing conduct, and for just about everything else. Costs to the student for programs of different type and length ranged from $910 to $2,800.

What these programs did have in common was the necessity of adapting an American pattern to the foreign environment. The American undergraduate came from a planned society, where Alma Mater, for a price, fed and sheltered him, watched over his comings and goings, girded him about with advisers, arranged for his academic experiences, and measured what he had learned at the end of each term. The German university represented academic laissez faire, with the student left to find his own way to the final licensing examination. The difference in educational design reflects a basic difference in educational purpose. The continental universities, and those modeled after them, were developed to give specialized training to an elite. The American undergraduate institutions, on the other hand, transformed an English model to give a liberal education to millions of students.

The rapid expansion of programs has raised a serious question about the maintenance of academic standards. While the better programs represent sound educational purpose and careful design, many others have arisen as a consequence of the travel urges of professors and students, or even publicity-seeking college administrators. Very few of the steadily proliferating summer-study tours are worth the academic credit their students earn.

To meet this problem, educators in this field have developed guidelines for planning programs of quality. These may be found in the writings of Stephen A. Freeman, consultant to the Consultative Service on United States Undergraduate Study Abroad of the Institute of International Education,[29] and also in A Guide to Institutional Self-Study and Evaluation of Educational Programs Abroad, published in 1965 by the Council on Student Travel, which numbers among its members more than 90 colleges and universities with undergraduate programs abroad.

It is not necessary to repeat here the quantity of sound advice for foreign study planners to be found in these reports. It may be useful, however, to give special emphasis to several of the major recommendations.

Above all it is important to spell out the objectives of a given program clearly enough for the participants, the administrators, and especially the evaluators to understand. Of the planning of evaluation and research we shall have more to say later on. It should be a part of every program that aspires to quality status.

For programs of excellence the watchword will be integration. First of all, the aims of the program will be integrated with the general aim of the institution, consistent with its special character and purposes. The administration of the program abroad will be integrated with the stateside administration and there will be provision for the same kind of faculty involvement and oversight that insures the quality of campus programs. Academic standards abroad will be as high as those at home. The student's foreign program will be integrated with his whole education, so that campus preparation, sojourn abroad, and subsequent campus study will all be conceived as part of the same educational process.

On these points there is general agreement in the writings on study abroad, but there is still another area of integration that has not been so well identified. This is the integration of nonacademic experience abroad with the study program. The justification of foreign study must be that it can do things for the student's education that are not as likely to happen on campus. It is not enough to settle for competence in foreign language. The student is doing more than learning a skill, he is learning to cope with a foreign culture. What a student in Paris is studying, both inside and outside the classroom, is not simply French, it is the French. It is this opportunity to experience a foreign culture, to study it and discover it for himself that cannot be provided on campus. What the skilled language teacher, who, after all, teaches a civilization and not just a language, does almost without thinking, the sociologist, the historian, the economist and all the student's other professors abroad should be doing in their own courses, exploiting to the full the student's drive to learn about his new environment and to make sense of his new experience.

It is generally agreed that programs of quality will insure their students some degree of cultural immersion by planning activities through which the students will enter into natural relationships with the members of the host society. But unless these experiences are studied, actually brought under intellectual scrutiny with the help of professors and books, cross-cultural experience is likely to stop short of cross-cultural understanding. Without some carefully designed academic exploitation of the world outside the classroom, study abroad can miss its best chances.

Of the significant cross-cultural experiences planned as part of foreign programs, arrangements for family stays have been the most common. The few programs that have included work experience have found it to hold a high potential for learning and to be well worth all the effort it entails. In listing undergraduate study abroad as an activity eligible for support, the International Education Act specifies "planned and supervised student work-study-travel programs."

Work experiences in foreign programs may be divided into five categories:

(1) Participative work experiences, through which students participate in the everyday life of a society through an ordinary job. Examples would include the factory trainee jobs in Germany or the summer camp counselor jobs in France.

(2) International work experiences through which students work in private and public international agencies. This does not offer a cultural immersion, but such experiences are important in opening up to young people the possibilities of internationally related careers.

(3) Jobs with American employers overseas. These have some of the same values of the second category, but many jobs with the

American firms abroad are unfortunately insulated from the local culture.

(4) International service overseas. There is an increasing interest in providing undergraduates with opportunities for Peace Corps-type service abroad. Some institutions give academic credit for Peace Corps training and service, others are exploring the idea of including a term in the Peace Corps as part of a regular program for the A.B. degree. Certain religious service organizations and their corresponding church-related colleges are working on similar arrangements.

(5) Undergraduate research abroad. There have already been a few programs in which undergraduates have assisted in anthropological and archeological field work and in social science research.

Needed Research on the Students

Much of the research on education exchange has been done in the last 20 years in the United States, where the largest number of foreign students were to be found. A large part of it has been inspired by practical needs. The government has wanted to know whether the programs it has supported have actually changed attitudes toward the United States, while foreign student advisers have been concerned with problems of adjustment which occupy such a large place in American research on the international student. The most significant finding has been the existence of a U-curve in the adjustment of the foreign student, whose feelings of satisfaction are high at the outset of his sojourn, descend as he begins to deal with the new environment, and mount as he learns how to cope with it. The most important studies have turned from preoccupation with attitudes and adjustment problems to the study of the whole process of cross-cultural education, in which attitudes and adjustment problems are, of course, influential factors.

The most important research contributions have been the investigations sponsored or inspired by the Committee on Cross-Cultural Education of the Social Science Research Council, which produced a series of books concerned with experiences of different national groups of foreign students in the United States.[30] More recently, in December, 1966, a group of university rectors met at Bellagio, Italy, to consider the formation of an International Committee for Educational Exchange, with research needs being placed high on the agenda. The International Education Act included a provision calling for a study of the immigration to the United States of foreign students from developing countries, the so called brain drain.

The problems that would appear to need further investigation are these:

(1) Who are the international students? Why do they leave home? What are their hopes and expectations? An international census is

called for as a first step, to assemble statistics from all countries as systematically as the Institute of International Education has done for the United States. The next step would be to collect data on the students themselves, concerning such matters as age, intelligence, socioeconomic status, foreign language competence, academic status and record, personality type, and attitudes. The use of psychological testing in selection procedures should be examined.

(2) What do they learn?

(a) Formal achievement in learning, such as language skill, acquisition of knowledge about a specialized field of study, and knowledge about the host culture and the world in general.

(b) Changes in attitudes and values (international-mindedness, ethnocentricity, liberal attitudes, etc.).

(c) Changes in personality, personal adjustment and satisfaction, experiences in interpersonal relations.

(d) Gains in cross-cultural perception and sensitivity. How do they see you? How do you feel about what they think is beautiful? Perhaps we move here into the realm of the immeasurable. How does a student translate the pauses and the tones of voice in conversation with members of the host culture? How can we measure the student's achievement in actually using the language?

(3) Why do they learn? The many factors in cross-cultural learning can be divided into those that refer to groups of students or are part of a program design, and those that relate more to the individual student.

(a) Program elements: Orientation, pre-departure and post-arrival;[31] length of sojourn; cultural differences between home culture and host culture; individual and group programs; and interaction with host nationals.

(b) Program content: For example, the role in the learning design of lecture, observation, and participative involvement in the culture.[32]

(c) The individual student: As has so often been pointed out, there is no such thing as "the international student"; there are international students and each is unique. More case histories are needed so that the relationship between program elements and program content can be examined as they concern individuals. The individual's decision-making, for example, is influenced by his academic adviser, his professors, his reference group abroad (which may vary in different circumstances), the mass media, letters from home, etc.

(4) How is their achievement to be judged? What are the criteria of success and failure in foreign studies? This involves not only measuring what students have learned, but making a judgment about it

in the light of students' own goals, the goals of the institution where they study, and the goals of the institution or agency that has sent them or supports them. The theoretical bases for this evaluation are clearer as concerns academic achievement and more difficult to formulate as we consider the other outcomes of foreign study listed above.

(5) What do host nationals learn from them? How are the attitudes toward this country changed, if at all, by activities of American students abroad? How does the presence of foreign students at an American institution affect its international education program?

(6) What happens when they return? This includes, first of all, how the student uses his foreign experience for his own purposes. Does he return to finish his studies? For example, is there any perceptible influence upon the level of his academic performance? Has he made a new career choice? What about those who decide not to return? Second, this involves the study of the international student as a "change agent," either on a college campus or in the broader community. In many ways this is the most important subject of all. Since it can best be studied over a long period of time, the historians' talents must be enlisted along with those of the social scientists.

V. GOVERNMENTAL AND PRIVATE INITIATIVES

Private Initiatives

Among private organizations encouraging international programs in American undergraduate education, there are those agencies that offer program funds and those that offer program assistance. Of the funding agencies, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Ford Foundation, and the Carnegie Corporation have had the greatest impact on American colleges. Of the assisting agencies, the Foreign Policy Association Institute for International Education, the American Universities Field Staff, and Education and World Affairs have been the most influential.

The Rockefeller Foundation was the first of the major American foundations to fund programs in international education. As early as the 1930's, this foundation was providing funds for research and instruction in Slavic, Asian, Near Eastern, and Latin American Studies, either through individual or institutional grants. During the early 1940's, the foundation increased markedly its support of these programs to meet the research and training needs of American military personnel. Immediately after the war, the foundation created the first area study institute, in Russian Studies, at Columbia University.[34]

However, none of the Rockefeller grants was specifically directed toward the internationalization of undergraduate education. It was the Carnegie Corporation, in the early 1950's, that provided the first foundation funds for international studies at the undergraduate level.[35]

Neither the Rockefeller Foundation nor the Carnegie Corporation was able to offer large grants to the American educational community. The Ford Foundation, on the other hand, after reorganization in 1951, provided massive funding for international education at both the graduate and undergraduate levels. The Ford Foundation was able to continue earlier programs of other foundations on an expanded scale, as well as to sponsor radically new approaches to international education, such as comparative and topical studies. The Ford Foundation has further encouraged an expanded constituency for international programs by supporting cooperation among both an increased number of disciplines, areas, and faculties within one academic institution and several academic institutions in the same geographical area.[36]

One of the most significant programs of the Ford Foundation has been the Foreign Area Fellowships, created in 1952. These fellowships have been awarded to graduate students combining study in a discipline with interdisciplinary study in one of the foreign areas. Originally granted only for Asian and Near Eastern Studies, the fellowships were expanded in 1954 to include Slavic and African Studies, and in 1961 to include Latin American Studies. Of the nearly 1,500 Fellows since 1952, a significant majority now teach in institutions of higher learning, although the ratio of those teaching at the university level to those teaching at the college level is four to one.[37]

With intensified Federal initiatives in international education, the three major foundations are now turning their attention in matters of international education to the problems of developing universities overseas. Officials of these three foundations believe that the most appropriate role for a foundation is to indicate viable approaches to innovation. Once these new patterns have been accepted by a significant number of officials in both the private and public sectors, the foundations move on to other problem areas.

Of the private agencies that assist, rather than fund, international programs of American colleges, the Foreign Policy Association is the oldest and one of the most active. Founded nearly 50 years ago, the association encourages the education in world affairs of American citizens at all levels. Of relevance to American colleges are association publications on significant issues in foreign affairs, conferences that bring together educators and foreign affairs officials, and information on new instructional and research methodologies in international education. The association is supported by foundation and corporate grants, the sale of publications, and conference service fees.[38]

The Institute for International Education, founded in 1919, specializes in facilitating educational exchange between the United States and foreign countries. The institute provides consulting, planning, administrative, and information services to colleges and universities wishing to send faculty and students overseas for study, teaching, or research, or to receive overseas faculty and students at the home campus for teaching, study, or research purposes. The institute is supported by private grants and service contracts with government and private agencies as well as with educational institutions.[39]

The American Universities Field Staff was established in 1951 to supply information on contemporary foreign societies to American institutions of higher learning. Although the majority of member institutions are universities, American colleges have also found this organization to be of significant service. In many cases the American Universities Field Staff has been the sole college source of even the most basic data about foreign cultures. Staff associates, stationed overseas for extended periods of time, produce periodic reports on significant events, developments, and trends in their geographic area of specialty, which have been utilized by both undergraduate faculty and students.[40] Returning associates have been used on college campuses as teachers, seminar resource people, and occasional lecturers. AUFS bibliographies of basic materials on each of the major world areas have been used by college libraries building strength in international education. AUFS is supported by membership fees, foundation grants, and income derived from sales of reports, studies, and books.

Education and World Affairs was founded in 1962 to assist in the strengthening of the international dimension of American higher education. The organization provides consultation services to academic institutions, private organizations, and government agencies in the development and implementation of programs in international education; conducts studies of the significant problems and developments in international education; initiates and hosts local, regional, national, and international conferences; issues periodic policy statements and guidelines on the processes and objectives of international education; and provides information about international education to the interested public. EWA maintains advisory committees on various aspects of international education; the Committee on Intercultural Education, for one, is concerned primarily with undergraduate education. Education and World Affairs is supported by both foundation grants and government contracts.[41]

The International Education Act of 1966

Lyndon Johnson, the one-time Texas schoolteacher, has always had matters educational at heart, and his administration will long be remembered for the measures it produced in aid to education. His signing of the International Education Act on Asian soil on October 29, 1966, was the culmination of a series of developments that began with the President's Smithsonian Institution address of September 16, 1965, calling for a "new and noble adventure" in international education. He appointed a Task Force and incorporated their recommendations into his message to Congress of February 2, 1966, which made the case for international education in a striking phrase: "The conduct of our foreign policy will advance no faster than the curriculum of our classrooms." Together with a number of other measures, he proposed new legislation to provide for assistance to international studies. Identical bills were subsequently introduced into House and Senate with Representative John Brademas and Senator Wayne Morse taking the leadership in arranging hearings at which prominent government and educational leaders testified in the bill's behalf. On October 21, as the 89th Congress approached its closing hours, an amended bill finally passed both houses, but without any funds appropriated to implement it.

The President's Budget Message of January 24, 1967, asked Congress for a supplementary appropriation of $350,000 for the fiscal year 1966-67 to set up the Center of Educational Cooperation (CEC) in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare under the Assistant Secretary of Education, and to establish the National Advisory Committee on International Studies. This committee would set forth the guidelines according to which grants would be made by the CEC, and it would also make recommendations concerning funding of this program in future years. The act itself had authorized appropriations of $40,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1968, and $90,000,000 for the fiscal year ending in 1969, with an increasing proportion being given to undergraduate programs in the second year. The actual budget request for 1967-68, however, was only for $20,000,000.

By the provisions of the act, the National Defense Education Act of 1958 was liberalized to provide for a more flexible policy in granting funds for language and area centers, and its administration was moved to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare in order to coordinate these grants with those of the two new programs provided for under the act. Section 101 of the act authorized grants for the establishment of graduate centers in international studies, and Section 102 authorized grants to "Institutions of Higher Education, or combinations of such institutions, to assist them in planning, developing, and carrying out a comprehensive program to strengthen and improve undergraduate instruction in international studies." Public and private non-profit agencies were also to be eligible for assistance.

Projects and activities specified include: (1) planning for the development and expansion of undergraduate programs in international studies; (2) teaching, research, curriculum development, and other related activities; (3) training of faculty members in foreign countries; (4) expansion of foreign language courses; (5) planned and supervised student work-study-travel programs; (6) programs under which foreign teachers and scholars may visit institutions as visiting faculty; and (7) programs of English language training for foreign teachers, scholars, and students.

The conditions under which grants would be made to undergraduate institutions were delineated as follows: "To provide an equitable distribution of the grants throughout the States, while at the same time giving a preference to those institutions which are most in need of funds for programs in international studies and which show real promise of being able to use funds effectively."

Other criteria are to be found in the published reports of the hearings. Secretary Gardner emphasized that grants would not be made for some new educational frill or an unrelated addition to a college program. Proposals would have to demonstrate that the project to be supported would be integrated with the total educational program of the institution. This means providing some evidence that the institution as a whole is committed to international education; not just its administrators, but its faculty.

It is intended that a wide diversity of institutions be supported, both as regards the nature of the institution and its state of development in international studies. Colleges and junior colleges, public and private professional schools, and teacher training institutions are all referred to specifically. Associations of institutions with cooperative programs are especially encouraged, as are cooperative arrangements between an undergraduate institution and a graduate center.

The House report on the bill declared that the primary aim of Section 102 was "the infusion of an international dimension into all undergraduate curriculums," and a secondary objective was the preparation of students who will go on to graduate training.

The House Committee report recommended that the Federal support must be long-term if international education is to become an integral part of our institutions, and it also must be broad support, which means "strengthening the balanced growth of an institution as a whole, and . . . support of a wide diversity of programs."

The House Committee wished to make clear that, "while innovation as such should not be required of every program, support may be given to comparatively unorthodox programs which show distinctive promise." An example given was that of a junior college that "might receive support for a program where institutional commitment, leadership, interest, planning, and past performance give promise of a program contributing significantly to the objectives of the act."

The emphasis of Section 102 of the act is clearly upon innovation. Wisely administered, it could have a striking impact upon undergraduate education throughout the country. It is true that changing a college curriculum is like moving a graveyard, but hope for Federal aid can be a potent prime mover. Scarcely was President Johnson's signature on the bill dry before a mighty stirring among college administrators was apparent, with many faculty committees appointed to take stock of existing programs and resources, to advise, and perchance to dream. When it is realized that only proposals for comprehensive programs will be entertained, that curricular patchwork is not encouraged, there should be incentive enough to dream up some distinctive designs for international studies. As the Federal Government takes over from the foundations the support of international education with resources more appropriate to the job that needs to be done, it is permissible to hope that the undergraduates of tomorrow, who will be the nation's leaders of the day after tomorrow, may be given an education commensurate to the responsibility they will one day have to shoulder.[42]

FOOTNOTES

1. Grayson Kirk, The Study of International Relations in American Colleges and Universities. New York, Council on Foreign Relations, 1947.

2. Brookings Institution, Major Problems of United States Foreign Policy. Six annual volumes. Washington, 1947-52.

3. The final volume was Howard E. and Florence H. Wilson, American Higher Education and World Affairs. Washington, American Council on Education, 1963.

4. Percy Bidwell, Undergraduate Education in Foreign Affairs. New York, King's Crown Press, 1962.

5. Report of the Committee on the University and World Affairs. New York, Ford Foundation, 1960.

6. Committee on the College and World Affairs, The College and World Affairs. New York, February, 1964.

7. William Theodore De Bary, "Education for a World Community." Liberal Education, vol. 50, No. 4, p. 1-21. December, 1964.

8. Published by the Association, Washington, 1964.

9. For an excellent survey of the history and current patterns of graduate training in international relations that is directly applicable to the undergraduate experience, see C. Dale Fuller, Training of Specialists in International Relations, Washington, American Council in Education, 1957.

10. For discussion of the concept and practice of area studies, see Robert Hall, Area Studies: With Special References to Their Implications in the Social Sciences. New York, Social Science Research Council, May, 1947. Also C. A. O. van Nieuwenhuijhe, "Area Studies: Unidisciplinary, Multidisciplinary, Interdisciplinary." International Journal of Comparative Sociology, Karnatak University,

Dharwar (India), vol. 5, No. 2. September, 1962.

The earlier Hall study is a significant contribution to an understanding of the objectives of the area study approach. Of particular interest is a section on the implications of the area approach to social science research. There is also specific attention given to the desirability of area programs at the undergraduate level, with recommendations for curriculum development. The van Nieuwenhuijhe survey is by far the outstanding analysis in print of the advantages and disadvantages of the area approach to international education. The article contains a superb history of the development of the concept of area study that pays especial attention to presumed objectives and actual procedures. It is an indispensable study for college officials considering the development of an area component in programs of international education.

11. For a description of the language and area centers established under provisions of the National Defense Education Act, see Joseph Axelrod and Donald Bigelow, Resources for Language and Area Studies. Washington, American Council on Education, 1962. Also Donald Bigelow and Lyman Legters, NDEA Language and Area Centers: A Report on the First Five Years. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1964.

Axelrod and Bigelow refer to the evolution of the center concept, organization and enrollment patterns, methods of language instruction, and the relationships developed between language and area study. Bigelow and Legters extend this survey with more recent data and a more intensive review of the institutional policies and academic criteria for establishing language and area centers.

12. For an excellent description of an experimental undergraduate program in comparative studies, see "Dartmouth College," in Commission on International Understanding, Association of American Colleges, Non-Western Studies in the Liberal Arts Colleges, Chap. 17. Washington, 1964.

13. Topical studies are also commonly referred to as "functional studies." For an earlier description of the concept of topical or functional studies, see Julian Steward, Area Research: Theory and Practice,p. 83-94. New York, Social Science Research Council, 1950. Steward considers the "problem approach" to be a logical extension of the area approach; he discusses nationalism, economic change, urbanization, and race relations as possible study and research concerns.

14. For discussion of the rationale and techniques for including intercultural studies in general education, see Howard Reed, "Intercultural

or Non-Western Studies in General Education," in General Education: Current Ideas and Concerns. Washington, Association for Higher Education, National Education Association, 1964. Also see Reed's "Bringing Intercultural Education into Focus on U. S. Campuses," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, p. 45-55. Fall, 1966.

15. Most literature concerned with instructional strategies is not based on actual experimentation. However, for a pioneering study in the design and teaching of courses in international relations, see Charles McClelland, College Teaching of International Relations. San Francisco, San Francisco State College, 1962. The main goal of the three-year project was attitude transformation in undergraduates toward foreign affairs. The method employed was the international relations approach. The two courses designed under the project did not appear to have affected the students in any measurable way: the students had not changed their attitudes toward foreign affairs; they had not developed a greater understanding of the process of foreign affairs; nor had they reached a higher level of critical ability concerning foreign affairs issues. The author suggests that the techniques employed to test undergraduate achievement, rather than the instructional techniques themselves, may have been irrelevant to the issue.

16. For surveys on American academic performance overseas, see Leonard Goodwin, American Professors in Asia. Washington, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Department of State, June, 1964. Also George Guthrie and Richard Spencer, "American Professions and Overseas Technical Assistance," and James McCain and Arthur Weber, "The Faculty Expatriate," in Richard Humphrey, ed., Universities and Development Assistance Abroad. Washington, American Council on Education, 1967.

Goodwin studies the selection procedures and field performance of 50 Fulbright-Hays professors assigned to India, Pakistan, and Korea during the academic year 1962-63. Although the basic aim of the study was an analysis of the possible effectiveness of newly devised procedures for predicting overseas performance, a section on the actual experiences of the Fulbright professors in the field is of particular interest. Guthrie and Spencer examine the motivations of American academics for service in overseas technical development, based on surveys of professors involved in university contract operations. The attitudes of American professors overseas are seen to be intimately related to their perceptions of the relevance of overseas experience to academic career building. See Walter Johnson and Francis J. Colligan, The Fulbright Programs: A History. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1965. Also Edward W. Weidner, "The Professor Abroad: Twenty Years of Change." Annals of the American

Academy of Political and Social Science, vol. 368, p. 60-70. November, 1966.

17. For a survey of the overseas operations of American colleges and universities, see Institute of Advance Projects, East-West Center, and International Programs, Michigan State University, The International Programs of American Universities. East Lansing, Michigan State University, 1966. This is the second, revised edition of the earlier survey published in 1958, detailing the objectives and procedures of American academic institutions engaged in overseas activities. The analysis is particularly valuable for an understanding of the scope and direction of these programs but does not, unfortunately, make clear distinctions between college and university activities.

18. For suggestions of ways in which faculty could be given more overseas experience and colleges and universities could be offered more internationalized faculty, see David Arnold, American Education Reserve: A Demonstration Proposal. New York, Education and World Affairs, October, 1966. Also Robert Iverson, Development Personnel for the Future: A System for Circulating Career Talent. Syracuse University, Maxwell School, September, 1966.

Arnold presents an outline of a possible structure for enlisting the support of American scholars in overseas assistance. A proposed contract between the Center for Educational Cooperation, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and a selected number of colleges and universities could provide needed personnel for overseas service and needed competence for academic faculties. Iversen suggests that the Federal Government support the concept of an expanded development profession, in which experts would move freely between the public and private sectors and between teaching, research, and operational assignments. Such a profession would service the personnel needs of foundations, government agencies, colleges, and universities and the career objectives of the scholar who seeks operational experience and the development personnel who seeks academic experience. Another possible government solution to at least short-term needs of colleges for faculty with overseas experience might be the assignment of a State Department Senior Fellow to a college or group of colleges for a year of teaching and consulting, paralleling such assignments to universities that have developed within the past years.

19. For an excellent summary of the processes and goals of faculty development in international education, see the College and World Affairs, op. cit., p. 14-31. Covered are procedures such as on-campus seminars; off-campus study; overseas teaching, research, and study; the recruitment of new faculty; and the utilization of visiting faculty.

20. For several important essays on the role of interinstitutional cooperation in faculty development, see Committee on Education and Labor, U. S. House of Representatives, 89th Congress, Second Session, International Education: Past, Present, Problems and Prospects, Selected Readings, p. 481-502. 1966. Specific examples are offered from the experiences of the Regional Council for International Education, based in Pittsburgh; the relationship between Indiana University and 21 Indiana colleges; and the Midwest Universities Consortium for International Activities.

21. A productive approach to a study of the career objectives of specialists in international education could be a survey of the desired and actual experiences of the now nearly 1,500 former Foreign Area Fellows. A directory of fellowships awarded during the first 11 years of the program is available (Foreign Area Fellowship Program, Directory of Foreign Area Fellows (1952-1963). New York, 1964) that analyzes the backgrounds, academic preparation, and professional activities of the Fellows.

22. For a description of such a teaching internship program that has already been developed at the Graduate School of International Studies, University of Denver, see Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U. S. Senate, 89th Congress, Second Session, Hearings before the Subcommittee on Education on S. 2874, p. 341-42. 1966.

One of the major American foundations might consider the creation of an internationalized Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship and Teaching Internship program that would support the graduate study and internship teaching experience of college graduates willing to consider teaching careers in international education. Graduate "centers of excellence," supported by the International Education Act, might be obliged to require that some of their graduate students teach at the undergraduate level in certain degree programs at the center.

23. A study of possible ways in which a university might be able to apply experience in overseas educational development to problems of domestic educational development would be based on the assumption that the developmental experience can be transferred from one culture to another. For an analysis of this basic hypothesis, see Everett Hagen, On the Theory of Social Change. Homewood, Ill., Dorsey Press, 1962.

24. The statistics may be found in UNESCO, Study Abroad, 1966-68, p. 511-23. Paris, 1966. Institute of International Education, Undergraduate Study Abroad. New edition. New York, 1966. Institute of International Education, Open Doors 1966. New York, September, 1966.

25. Homer D. Higbee, *The Status of Foreign Student Advising in U. S. Universities and Colleges*. East Lansing, Michigan State University, 1961.

26. EWA, *The Foreign Student: Whom Shall We Welcome*? New York, 1964. EWA, *The Overseas Selection of Foreign Students.* New York, April, 1966.

27. Descriptions of individual programs are in IIE, *Undergraduate Study Abroad*, *op. cit.* *International Programs of American Universities*, *op. cit.* John A. Garraty and Walter Adams, *A Guide to Study Abroad.* Manhasset, N. Y., Channel Press, 1962.

28. "Academic Year In Germany--Programs 1965-66. Summary Results of Questionnaire Mailed by U. S. Embassy to Directors of American Study Programs in Germany." 1966. Dittoed.

29. *Undergraduate Study Abroad*, *op. cit.* p. 7-33.

30. The most recent is by Claire Selltiz and others, *Attitudes and Social Relations of Foreign Students in the United States.* Minneapolis, 1963. It presents a valuable review of research on this aspect of the subject.

The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues sponsored two important numbers of the *Journal of Social Issues*. The first was "Impacts of Study Abroad," ed. George V. Coelho, vol. 18, No. 1. 1962. The second was "Human Factors in Cross-Cultural Adjustment," ed. Sven Lundstedt, vol. 19, No. 3. July, 1963. Two important analyses of research of cross-cultural education have appeared: Margaret L. Cormack, *An Evaluation of Research on Educational Exchange.* Prepared for the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, United States Department of State. Washington, August, 1962. Otto Klineberg, *International Exchanges in Education, Science and Culture: Suggestions for Research.* New York, International Social Science Council, 1966.

31. On the planning of orientation programs for students see Irwin Abrams, "Preface to Study Abroad." *Journal of General Education*, vol. 14, p. 220-29. January, 1963. Such programs can profit from other programs that train for cross-cultural experience. See especially the excellent anthology compiled by social scientists out of the experience of the Peace Corps: Robert B. Textor, ed., *Cultural Frontiers of the Peace Corps.* Cambridge, Mass., M.I.T. Press, 1966. See also Robert J. Foster, *Examples of Cross-Cultural Problems Encountered by Americans Working Overseas: An Instructor's Handbook.* Washington,

Human Resources Research Office, George Washington University, May, 1965.

32. See especially Erling O. Schild, "The Foreign Student, as Stranger, Learning the Norms of the Host-Culture." Journal of Social Issues, vol. 18, p. 41-54. 1962. This article examines the effectiveness of the different ways of learning.

33. For a survey of major private agency support and assistance for international education, see American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, AACTE Handbook of International Education Programs. Washington, 1963. For an excellent analysis and evaluation of major foundation impact, see George Beckmann, "The Role of the Foundations," in Donald Bigelow and Lyman Legters, eds., The Non-Western World in Higher Education, p. 12-22. Philadelphia, November, 1964. (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, vol. 356.)

34. For an excellent article describing all Rockefeller Foundation operations, including those concerned explicitly with international education, see Greer Williams, "The Rockefeller Foundation: How It Operates." Atlantic Monthly, p. 106-18. April, 1964.

35. For descriptions of activities supported by the Carnegie Corporation, including those in international education, see the Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly.

36. The most valuable description of projects sponsored by the Ford Foundation in international education for the past 15 years is Ford Foundation, Context the World. New York, 1966. Of particular importance is a section devoted exclusively to Ford Foundation activities at the undergraduate level. Initiatives in interinstitutional cooperation are stressed.

37. See the Directory of Foreign Area Fellows (1952-1963), op. cit.

38. The most significant publication of the Foreign Policy Association for the American college is Intercom, a bimonthly booklet covering contemporary developments in world affairs and suggesting teaching materials and guides appropriate to these events. Each issue highlights a particular world area or world problem.

39. The Institute of International Education has recently started publishing an IIE Report, issued quarterly from the institute's New York headquarters. The report, in newsletter format, discusses current and projected activities of the organization.

40. American Universities Field Staff, Reports Service, New York. From 60 to 100 reports are issued annually, covering world affairs developments in all overseas geographic areas. This is an extremely valuable service for colleges developing library competence in world affairs. Each report includes specific contemporary events, historical antecedents, possible future developments, and the significance of these events to broader patterns and trends in world affairs.

41. Of the numerous Education and World Affairs publications, perhaps the most interesting to college officials would be Education and World Affairs: An Overview, April, 1966, which describes the objectives and current activities of the organization; and Intercultural Education, September, 1965, which provides a listing of fellowships available to faculty and students for study and research in international education. Also see The University Looks Abroad: Approaches to World Affairs at Six American Universities. New York, Walker & Co., 1965.

42. Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, 89th Congress, Second Session, Hearings Before the Task Force on International Education on H.R. 12451 and H.R. 12452, March 20, 31; April 1, 4, 5, 6, and 7, 1966. Washington, Government Printing Office,1966. Also Committee on Labor Public Welfare, U. S. Senate, 89th Congress, Second Session, Hearings of the Subcommittee on Labor and Public Welfare on S. 2874 and H.R. 14643, August 17, 19, and September 19, 1966. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1966.

These two volumes are very valuable. Not only do the statements of Secretary Gardner and other government officials define the purposes of the legislation and provide indications of how it will be administered and on what grounds grants in aid will be given, but in the testimony of witnesses, in the communications submitted, and through the supplemental material gathered for the committees and printed here, an excellent overall view of the present state of the field of international education is provided. See also the two pamphlets published by Education and World Affairs: International Education Program, 1966. New York, March, 1966. International Education Act of 1966. New York, November, 1966. These two pamphlets represent a very handy collection of documents on the act. The first includes the President's Smithsonian Address and Message to Congress; the second, the final text of the act and the reports from the Senate and House committees.

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The International Curriculum

1. Bell, Daniel, The Reforming of General Education. New York, Columbia University Press, 1966.

A detailed examination of the general education curricula and experiences of Harvard College, Columbia College, and the College of the University of Chicago, with recommendations for future reforms. There are some considerations of the relevance of international education in liberal learning throughout the book, but a strong recommendation for an increased role for international education is conspicuous in its absence. An interesting guide to the experiences of other colleges for those considering the introduction of foreign affairs content into the general education curriculum.

2. Bidwell, Percy, Undergraduate Education in World Affairs. New York, Kings Crown Press, 1962.

A study of the quality of undergraduate general education in foreign affairs, based on a sample of 240 academic institutions. The author concludes that the average student acquires no significant knowledge of foreign affairs during his undergraduate career; he cites as explanation for this startling phenomenon a lack of student interest in foreign affairs and the unwillingness of qualified faculty to offer general education courses in the field. An important study for colleges seeking to increase the foreign affairs awareness of their students.

3. Bigelow, Donald, and Lyman Legers, eds., The Non-Western World in Higher Education. Philadelphia, November, 1964. (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, vol. 356.)

A superb collection of articles on past results and future prospects of non-Western emphases in higher education. It includes specific insights on the role of international studies in the social sciences and humanities curriculum and developments within Asian, Middle Eastern, Slavic, African, and Latin American Studies, which are invaluable for curriculum planning at any level.

4. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, The College and University in International Affairs. New York, 1960.

A summary of discussion by Carnegie Foundation trustees on international education practices and needs in American colleges and universities. The section on the college curriculum gives an overview on the ideal role of foreign affairs in both general and specialized education and notes ways in which the ideal has yet to be met. This report is interesting for its breadth of coverage but is not sufficiently detailed to offer guidance to the college working toward an internationalized curriculum.

5. Committee on the College and World Affairs, The College and World Affairs. New York, February, 1964.

Pages 32-57 of this basic document on undergraduate international education are devoted to goals and suggested procedures of curriculum development. This is one of the most significant guides available to American colleges. Highly recommended to those college officials charged with responsibility for internationalizing the curriculum.

6. Commission on International Understanding, Association of American Colleges, Non-Western Studies in the Liberal Arts College. Washington, 1964.

The most extensive collection available of actual college case studies of curriculum development in international education. An introduction on the origins and present state of non-Western studies is followed by superb illustrations of the problems and procedures involved in the incorporation of the study of the non-Western world into curricular structures. The international programs of 18 colleges are described in terms of institutional history, organizational procedures, course content, and future plans. Highly recommended.

7. Committee on Education and Labor, U. S. House of Representatives, International Education: Past, Present, Problems and Prospects, Selected Readings. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, October, 1966.

A valuable collection of the best thoughts on American needs in international education. Pages 101-265 are highly relevant to the goals and procedures of curriculum development. Articles included cover the role of international education in liberal learning, the place of language and area studies, and the importance of library resources.

8. Legters, Lyman H., The National Defense Education Act and Latin American Studies. Austin, Tex., Institute of Latin American Studies, University of Texas, 1965.

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9. Morgenthau, Hans, "Area Studies and the Study of International Relations." International Social Science Bulletin (Paris), vol. 4, No. 4, p. 647-55. 1952.

An extremely valuable examination of the common problems and objectives of international relations and area studies. The author suggests that both fields face the same difficulties in becoming academic disciplines, and in defining a unified scope of inquiry and a systematic methodology of inquiry. Should these difficulties be overcome--and the author ventures some suggestions toward this goal--area studies and international relations will most likely make outstanding contributions to an understanding of foreign affairs.

10. Morehouse, Ward, ed., Asian Studies in Liberal Arts Colleges. Washington, Association of American Colleges, 1961.

A collection of papers describing the historical development, structures, content, and objectives of programs in Asian studies at several American colleges. Of particular interest are the articles describing cooperative arrangements between Earlham College and Antioch College and between Indiana University and 21 Indiana colleges. An excellent guide for those colleges wishing to profit from the experience of others in developing an undergraduate program in Asian studies.

11. Parker, William R., The National Interest and Foreign Languages, 3rd edition. Washington, U. S. National Commission for UNESCO, Department of State, September, 1961.

A discussion guide prepared for meetings called by the U. S. Commission for UNESCO on the relevance of foreign language acquisition to the national interest. The study describes the history of foreign language instruction in the United States, the current situation, and possible future developments. Of particular importance is a final section on research needs. A significant document for colleges wishing to emphasize the language component of international education.

12. Princeton University Conference on Foreign Language and Area Studies, "A Guide for High Schools and Colleges." Special supplement, Educational Record, p. 229-83. Spring, 1966.

The summary and recommendations of the conference and five articles that served as discussion papers for the conference produce a splendid guide to appropriate techniques for introducing a knowledge of foreign areas and cultures into secondary and undergraduate education. The discussion paper by George Beckmann on "Curricular Methods of Introducing Foreign Area Studies at the Undergraduate Level" is outstanding.

13. Princeton University Conference on Undergraduate Instruction in Critical Languages and Area Studies, Recommendations and Report. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, October, 1964.

A concise presentation of the procedures and objectives of language and area studies for liberal learning. Special attention is given to interinstitutional cooperation. The Princeton critical language instruction program, with the participation of approximately 80 Eastern and Midwestern colleges, is presented as a possible model for other colleges and universities. Specific recommendations are offered for the strengthening of undergraduate language and area studies.

14. Swift, Richard, World Affairs and the College Curriculum. Washington, American Council on Education, 1959. (Studies in Universities and World Affairs.)

An early survey of the problems encountered by American colleges in the definition and curricular presentation of world affairs. Although the universities are not as extensive as those in the AAC survey, the book serves as a fine guide to the various approaches for developing an internationalized curriculum. Of particular value is an extended discussion of differences between foreign affairs as a major field of interest and foreign affairs as a supplementary field of interest.

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The International Student

16. Abrams, Irwin, "The Student Abroad," in Samuel Baskin, ed., Higher Education: Some Newer Developments, p. 78-103. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1965.

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A status report on undergraduate programs.

18. _______________, "Why Study Abroad?" Occasional Paper on Undergraduate Study Abroad, No. 4. Philadelphia Committee on Academic Programs Abroad of the Council on Student Travel, 1965.

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20. Du Bois, Cora, Foreign Students and Higher Education in the United States. Washington, American Council on Education, 1956.

A volume in the series, "Studies in Universities and World Affairs." While this analysis was written before much of the research on the foreign student was published, Dr. Du Bois was active in the Committee on Cross-Cultural Education that planned the series of monographs on different foreign student national groups in the United States, and she was able to take advantage of this work. Her analysis is sharp and this volume is filled with much good sense.

21. Euwema, Ben, Undergraduates Overseas: A Look at U. S. Programs. New York, Institute of International Education, 1966.

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22. Fraser, Stewart, ed., Government Policy and International Educa-

tion. New York, John Wiley, 1965.

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23. Garraty, John A., and Walter Adams, From Main Street to the Left Bank: Students and Scholars Abroad. East Lansing, Michigan State University Press, 1959.

A lively account of American study on the Continent in the 1950's, based on widely held interviews with Europeans and American students and program directors. This was the first book on the subject, and while much of the information on specific programs is out of date, there is much significant comment and criticism that apply to today's programs.

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The basic report. Stephen A. Freeman in an essay surveys the development of undergraduate study abroad and presents wise recommendations to program planners. Programs are then listed with brief descriptions.

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28. Metraux, Guy S., "Cross-Cultural Education Through the Ages," in David G. Scanlon, ed. International Education: A Documentary History, p. 124-37. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960.

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Some fresh and suggestive comments. See especially chapters 2 and 3.

31. Weidner, Edward W., The World Role of Universities. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1962.

The summary volume of a series of monographs resulting from an examination of international exchange programs of American Universities conducted by the Institute of Research on Overseas Programs at Michigan State University. Study abroad programs are discussed at length (p. 56-111), and there is a useful bibliographical commentary.

Research on Cross-Cultural Education

32. Bennett, John W., "The Innovative Potential of American-Educated Japanese." Human Organization, vol. 21, p. 246-51. Winter,1962-63.

Generalizations that apply to the foreign-educated person in general as an agent of change in his society.

33. Billick, James, "The Impact of Cross-Cultural Education upon the Student and the Society," in Michael J. Flack, ed., "Five Studies in International Cultural and Educational Exchange." Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh, Spring, 1964. Dittoed.

An analysis of 12 leading research studies to determine what light their findings might throw on the claims for educational exchange. Originally written for Dr. Flack's seminar at the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs at Pittsburgh.

34. Coelho, George V., ed., "Impacts of Studying Abroad." Special issue, Journal of Social Issues, vol. 18, No. 1. 1962.

Reports by social psychologists of research on changes in attitude and behavior in response to cross-cultural experience, illustrating differences of approach. The editor contributes an important article summarizing these studies and clarifying the basic concepts.

35. Cormack, Margaret L., An Evaluation of Research on Educational Exchange. Washington, Bureau of Educational Cultural Affairs, U. S. Department of State, August, 1962.

A keen summary and analysis of research on foreign students in the United States, with recommendations for needed research and suggestive theories on cross-cultural learning. The author draws effectively upon her own experience in India. A very valuable discussion, with good bibliographies.

36. Council on Student Travel, A Guide to Institutional Self-Study and Evaluation of Educational Programs Abroad. New York, 1965.

A cooperative product originating in the CST's Committee on Academic Programs Abroad. Each section suggests the kind of materials that an institution engaged in self-study can examine, formulates a statement of guiding principles, and phrases "Program Information Questions" and "Evaluative Questions." Includes a useful bibliography. Required reading for planners of foreign programs.

37. Elliott, Alan J. A., "The Evaluation of International Education: An Administrative Approach." Social Sciences Information, vol. 4, p. 61-78. December, 1965.

A member of the UNESCO secretariat argues that the role of the administrator of international scholarship programs has not been adequately emphasized. He distinguishes between administrative evaluation, concerned with the effectiveness of results in relationship to the stated goals of the program, and social science research, that selects areas of investigation where there seem to be significant variations between different sets of results. An extensive selective bibliography.

38. Galtung, Ingrid, "The Impact of Study Abroad." Journal of Peace Research, vol. 3, p. 258-76. 1965.

Illustrative of the international attention now given to this subject.

39. Gullahorn, Jeanne E., and John T. Gullahorn, "American Students Abroad: Professional versus Personal Development." Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, vol. 368, p. 43-59. November, 1966.

An important article illustrating methodological advance in research on cross-cultural education. Interview and questionnaire data from American students and academic grantees abroad is subjected to multivariate analysis to detect relationships between such factors as interaction with host nationals, post-award communication, and personal development and satisfactions. The authors recommend that programs of educational exchange emphasize academic objectives and that for younger students, who interact more extensively with host nationals, nonacademic programs, such as the Experiment in International Living and the Peace Corps, are more likely to promote the nonacademic objectives of personal maturity and international perspective.

40. Institute of International Education, Open Doors, 1966. New York, September, 1966.

The annual statistical report of the IIE on foreign scholars and students in the United States and American faculty and students abroad.

41. Kelman, Herbert C., ed., International Behavior: A Social-Psychological Analysis. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

The contributions of social psychology to the study of international relations, illustrated in the research findings of many scholars reported here. Two articles are of particular importance to the study of student exchange: Pool's "Effects of Cross-National Contact on National and International Images," and Anita L. Mishler's "Personal Contact in International Exchanges." Pool sums up research findings about the effects of travel upon certain images: those of the traveler about his hosts, his own country, and himself; and those of his hosts about him. Miss Mishler's chapter refers to similar sources of data but emphasizes the interaction process. She suggests that the undergraduate from abroad, who is not yet in an established role in his country, is more available for a variety of relationships with Americans and hence is more likely to take home with him more information about America and a more differentiated view of American society. The older, more established student is more likely to develop professional contacts that he will maintain.

42. Klineberg, Otto, International Exchanges in Education Science and Culture: Suggestions for Research. Publications of the International Social Science Council. Paris and the Hague, Mouton, 1966.

The UNESCO secretariat and other scholars helped the author survey the field and make these important recommendations for research. Pages 11-24 are concerned mainly with student exchanges. The bibliography is selective but very comprehensive and includes most of the important items that appeared up to 1964.

43. Leonard, Elizabeth, "Attitude Change in a College Program of Foreign Study and Travel." Educational Record. Spring, 1964.

One of the few attempts to measure the outcomes of an American foreign study program. The author reports that significant liberalization of attitudes occurs in a program that begins with an orientation course emphasizing cross-cultural understanding and personal values.

44. Lundstedt, Sven, ed., "Human Factors in Cross-Cultural Adjustment." Special issue, Journal of Social Issues, vol. 19, No. 3. July, 1963.

The introduction by the editor on cross-cultural research and the articles by John and Jeanne Gullahorn, "U-Curve Hypothesis," and Eugene H. Jacobson, "Sojourn Research: A Definition of the Field," illustrate the development of theoretical concepts in this new area of research. The other articles report some of the work being done. An important collection.

45. National Association for Foreign Student Affairs and Institute of International Education, Research in International Education--1966. New York, 1966.

The 1965-66 survey, issued in April, 1966, on research in progress or recently completed. This is an annual publication, now in its eighth year. Since it is based on circulation of scholars and institutions it is necessarily incomplete, but it is a very useful compilation with purpose and methods given for each item.

46. Pace, C. Robert, The Junior Year In France: An Evaluation of the University of Delaware-Sweet Briar College Program. Syracuse, N. Y., Syracuse University Press, 1959.

A pioneer study indicating changes in values and "international-mindedness" that have been produced by this program, administered first by Delaware and after World War II by Sweet Briar.

47. Selltiz, Claire, J. R. Christ, J. Havel, and S. W. Cook, Attitudes and Social Relations of Foreign Students in the United States. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1963.

The final study in the series sponsored by the Committee on Cross-Cultural Research of the Social Science Research Council, this book investigates the relationship between foreign students' interaction with Americans and their attitudes toward the United States. The situational approach and the attempt to reckon with a number of variables illustrate the advance over the earliest research on foreign students in America The authors found that European students are likely to interact more frequently with Americans and make more friends here than are non-Europeans. Foreign students who interact more with Americans learn more about America and are less likely to make superficial generalizations about it. Living arrangements with high interaction potential further the more favorable attitudes. A complete bibliography is included.

48. Smith, M. Brewster, ed., "Attitudes and Adjustment in Cross-Cultural Contact: Recent Studies of Foreign Students." Special issue, Journal of Social Issues, vol. 12, No. 1. 1956.

This issue represents the first fruits of the work of the Committee on Cross-Cultural Education of the Social Science Research Council. The contributions of the editor represent an important theoretical formulation of the basis of this research. The other papers illustrate the developing methodology.

49. U. S. Advisory Commission on International and Cultural Affairs, A Beacon of Hope: The Exchange of Persons Program, A Report. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, April, 1963.

A study of the effectiveness of the educational and cultural exchange program of the Department of State since 1949, made by a distinguished committee headed by John W. Gardner. This report is positive, but recommendations for improvement are made.

50. U. S. Department of State, Bureau of Intelligence and Research, *Cross-Cultural Education: A Bibliography of Government-Sponsored and Private Research on Foreign Students and Trainees in the U. S. and in Other Countries, 1946-64.* Washington, April, 1965.

A selective bibliography of reports, books, and articles. It is well-annotated and organized according to research sponsor or author.

REACTIONS

In order for this second series of "New Dimensions in Higher Education" to better serve the needs of colleges and universities throughout the nation, reader reaction is herewith being sought. In this instance, with respect to The American College and International Education, the following questions are asked:

1. Can you suggest other completed research, the results of which would add significantly to this report?
2. What problems related to this subject should be given the highest priority, in terms of further research?
3. What helpful suggestions do you have for institutions or individual faculty members who are interested in fostering international student programs?
4. What has your institution done, or what does it propose to do, that might be regarded as unusual or unique in this regard?
5. What more can the United States Office of Education do to help colleges and universities develop or enhance such programs?

Kindly address reactions to:

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